

When a dietary exposure measured with error is included in a disease outcome regression model:

a) Risk estimates are factored down (attenuated)
b) Study power is decreased (see lectures 6-7)

These problems are caused by a loss of information about usual dietary intake caused by the measurement error

In the previous lecture and in this lecture we deal with this loss of information

# Supplying further information about intake

- In Lecture 10 we described how combining selfreport instruments could increase information about usual intake and thereby help with relative risk estimation and power
- In this lecture we focus on combining dietary self-reports with biomarkers, to increase information about intake

# **Background**

- Suppose we have a nutritional cohort study in which we want to relate usual intake, T, of a specific nutrient to a health outcome, Y
- We will consider the case where Y indicates whether an individual develops a specific disease (Y=1) or not (Y=0)
- We cannot measure T exactly and in its place we obtain a self-report from a food frequency questionnaire, Q

# Disease model - logistic regression

Disease model:

$$\log \{Odds(Y = 1)\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \alpha_{Z_1} Z_1 \dots + \alpha_{Z_n} Z_n$$

Y = health outcome variable (0 or 1)

T = dietary exposure (true usual intake)

 $Z_1...,Z_n$  = other exposures, confounders, effect modifiers or intermediate variables

 $\alpha$ 's = log odds ratios for the explanatory variables

# **Attenuation**

Disease model:

$$\log \{Odds(Y = 1)\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \alpha_{Z_1} Z_1 \dots + \alpha_{Z_D} Z_D$$

- Instead of T, we obtain a report Q
- If we use Q instead of T in the regression, then our estimate of  $\alpha_T$  will be attenuated

# Regression calibration to adjust the estimate

Regression calibration:

$$\log \{Odds(Y = 1)\} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \alpha_{71} Z_1 \dots + \alpha_{7n} Z_n$$

- Instead of using Q in the regression, use E(T|Q,Z)
- E(T|Q,Z) is the value of true intake that is predicted when the report is Q and the other explanatory variables are Z<sub>1</sub>, ..., Z<sub>n</sub>

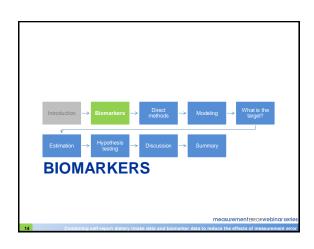
# Usual regression calibration does not increase power

- Regression calibration removes bias from the estimate, but usually makes little or no change to the result of the test of the null hypothesis that the log odds ratio is zero
  - Occasionally a result that was significant using the unadjusted method will become non-significant - see Lecture 7
- This is because usual regression calibration uses the same information, Q, about dietary intake as does the unadjusted method
- In this lecture, we will consider using together with Q, a biomarker value, M

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# Methods of combining self-report and biomarker

- Two main approaches to combining self-reports and biomarkers:
  - Direct methods, that can sometimes recover lost power but do not yield unbiased estimates of relative risk
  - A more complex **modeling-based** method, that recovers lost power and gives unbiased relative risk estimates, but that requires more information about the biomarker's relation to true usual intake



# Biomarkers (1)

# **Dietary biomarkers:**

Biological measurements related to dietary intake

- Recovery biomarkers
  - Ideal measures of intake that have no (or minimal) bias
  - Only a few are known
- Concentration biomarkers
  - Other biomarkers that are correlated with dietary intake; these comprise the vast majority of biomarkers

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# Biomarkers (2) Recovery biomarkers Based on recovery of specific biological products directly related to intake, and not subject to substantial inter-individual differences in metabolism Measure short-term intake iii. Only a few are known: - Doubly-labeled water for energy intake\* - Urinary nitrogen for protein intake - Urinary potassium for potassium intake Measure intake directly with minimal bias. The error is independent of true intake \* Under assumption that person is in energy balance

# Biomarkers (3)

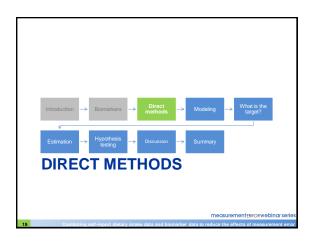
- Concentration biomarkers
  - Concentrations in blood, urine or tissues of specific chemicals or compounds
  - Related to dietary intake but not in a straightforward manner
  - iii. Could depend on factors that affect metabolism (e.g., gender, smoking, other dietary intakes)
  - iv. Very many are known: e.g., Serum lipids, carotenoids, vitamins, metals

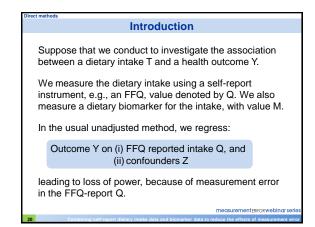
# Biomarkers (4)

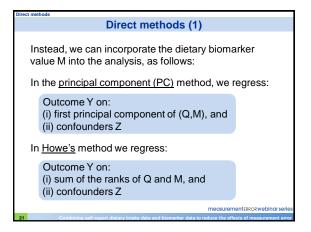
# Use of biomarkers

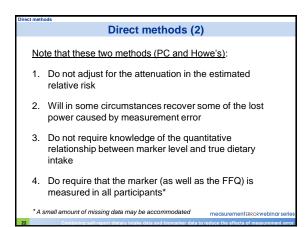
- Recovery biomarkers:
  - i. As the reference instrument in validation studies (see Lectures 6 and 7)
  - Combined with self-reports, using the same methodology as described in lecture 10
- Concentration biomarkers:
  - Combined with self-reports using methods we will describe in this lecture

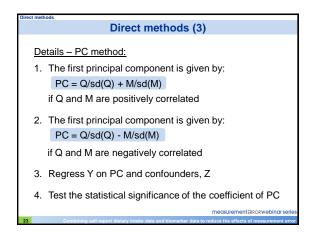
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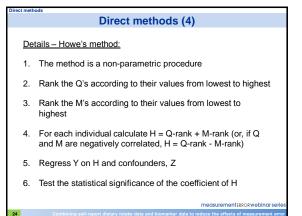




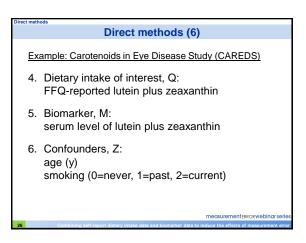


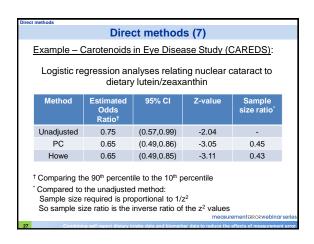


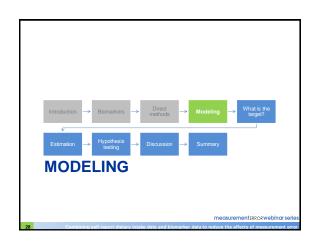




# Direct methods (5) Example: Carotenoids in Eye Disease Study (CAREDS) 1. Ancillary study of the Women's Health Initiative Observational Study 2. 1802 women were recruited to CAREDS during 2001-4 3. Disease of interest, Y: nuclear eye cataract; defined according to current eye examination or reported previous treatment for cataract







Modeling the intake-marker-disease relationship (1)

Disadvantages of the direct methods:

1. They do not always increase statistical power, and sometimes decrease it\*

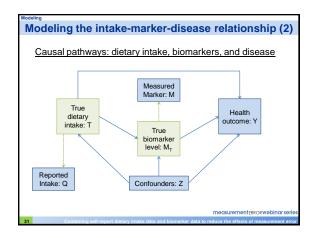
2. The estimated odds ratios are attenuated

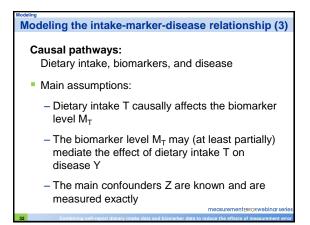
3. The combined measure (PC or Howe) does not have any recognized units

\* For example, when the marker is poorly correlated with intake, or has a weaker relationship with disease than the self-reported intake

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Modeling the intake-marker-disease relationship (1a)
 To make progress in addressing these deficiencies, we have to consider models of diet, their markers and health outcomes, including aspects of causality

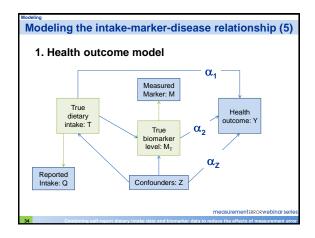


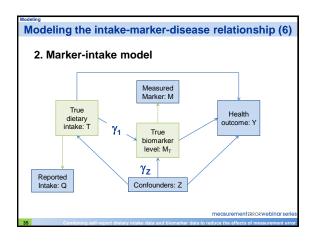


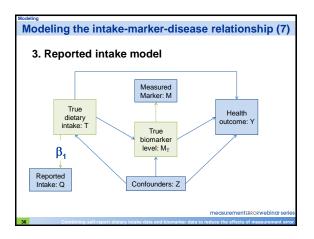
Modeling the intake-marker-disease relationship (4)

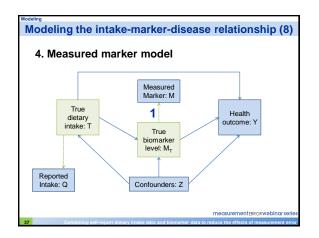
Statistical Models that describe the causal pathways:

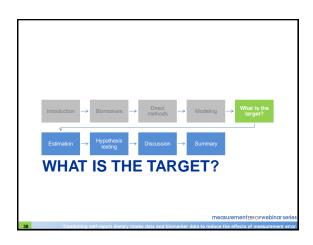
1. Health outcome model:  $\log it(P(Y=1)) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 T + \alpha_2 M_T + \alpha_2 Z$ 2. Marker-Intake model:  $M_T = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 T + \gamma_2 Z + \epsilon_{MT}$ 3. Reported intake model:  $Q = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T + \epsilon_Q$ 4. Measured marker model:  $M = M_T + \epsilon_M$ 

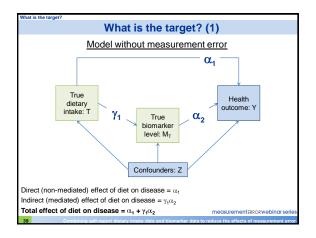


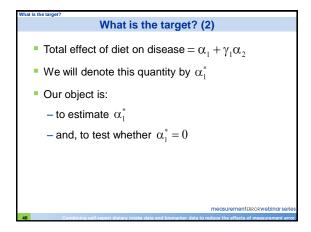


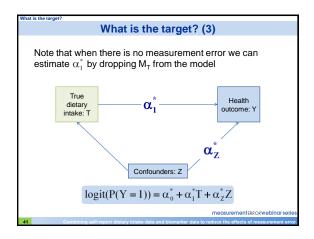


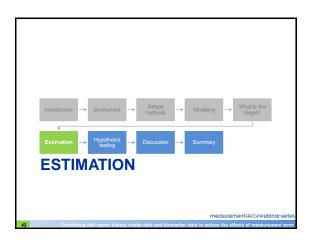


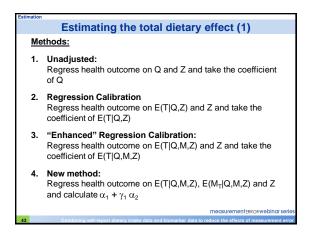


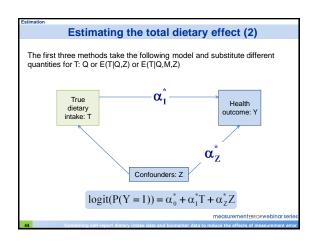


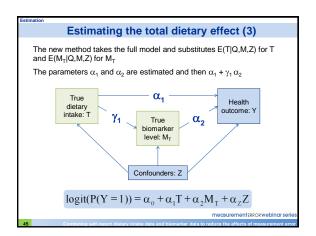


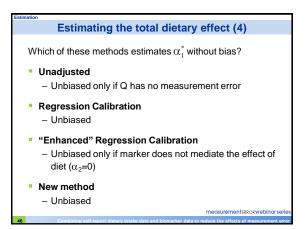


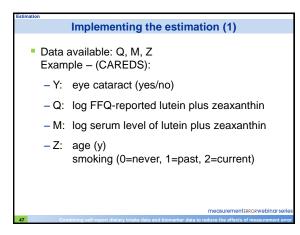


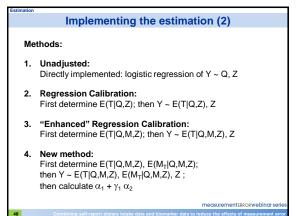


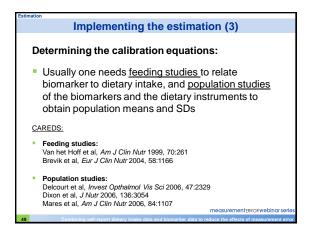


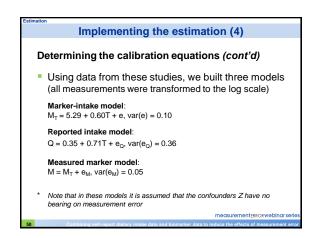


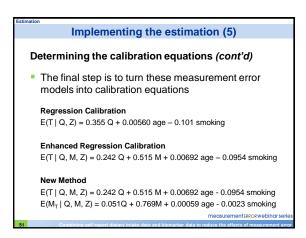


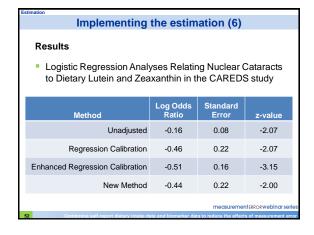


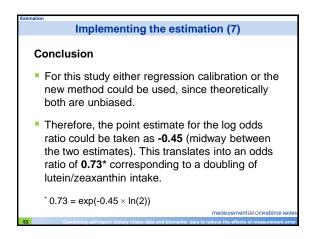


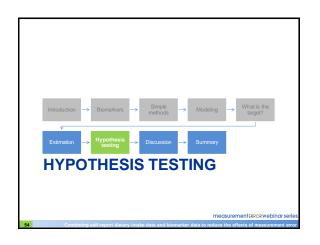












# Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (1)

- Besides estimating the odds ratio, we also want to test whether  $\alpha_1^* = 0$
- The four methods of estimation each lead to a test of this null hypothesis:
  - Compare z = estimate/SE with the standard normal distribution

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# Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (2) Example: Logistic Regression Analyses Relating Nuclear Cataracts to Dietary Lutein and Zeaxanthin in the CAREDS study Unadjusted 0.08 -2.07 0.038 -0.16 Regression Calibration -0.46 -2.07 0.038 **Enhanced Regression** -0.51 0.16 0.002 -3.15 Calibration New Method -0.44 0.22 -2.00 0.046

# Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (3)

- Which of these methods is valid?
  - i.e., yields a test that has the correct probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it's true
- Answer:
  - All four methods yield valid tests!
- Why?
  - Because each estimation method is unbiased when the total dietary effect  $\alpha_1^*$  is zero, even though the unadjusted and enhanced RC methods are otherwise biased

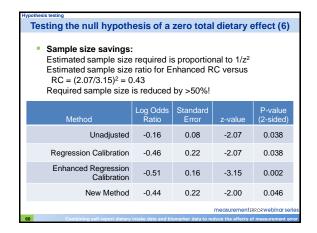
Combining self-report dietary intake data and biomarker data to reduce the effects of measurement error

# typothesis testing Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (4)

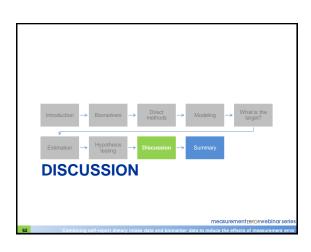
- Since all of these methods of testing the null hypothesis are valid, which is the most powerful?
- Answer:
  - The enhanced RC method

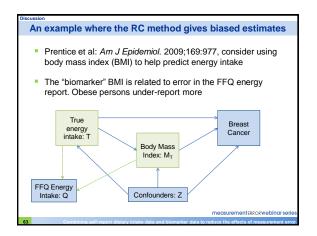
Combining self-report dietary intake data and biomarker data to reduce the effects of measurement error

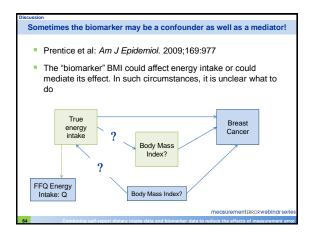
# Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (5) Logistic Regression Analyses Relating Nuclear Cataracts to Dietary Lutein and Zeaxanthin in the CAREDS study: - The method leading to the largest z-value and smallest P is Enhanced Regression Calibration Log Odds Ratio P-value (2-sided) Unadjusted -0.16 0.08 -2.07 0.038 Regression Calibration 0.22 -2.07 0.038 Enhanced Regression -0.51 0.16 -3.150.002 Calibration New Method -0.44 0.22 -2.00 0.046 measurement ERROR weblnar se



# Testing the null hypothesis of a zero total dietary effect (7) Recommended overall strategy: - Estimate the odds ratio using an unbiased method—either the new method or, for cases like CAREDS, the RC method - Test the odds ratio using Enhanced RC that incorporates marker information and thus increases power







# Costs of including a biomarker The methods described (except unadjusted and RC) all require that biomarker values can be obtained for any individual in the study This requires storing biological samples on all individuals. The cost of taking the sample and storing it needs to be reckoned against the increased power that could accrue from their use Cost of the assay is less crucial, since nested case-control designs can be used to analyze the data Many prospective studies now incorporate biobanks allowing the use of the methods described

